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ABSTRACT

Salient forces affecting the lives of beginning teachers are examined and a perspective is established on beginning to teach from which knowledge about teacher induction may be considered. Professional knowledge about beginning to teach, beginning teachers, and the induction of teachers is reviewed in terms of the following categories: (1) advice about beginning to teach: (2) reports of beginning teachers' own experiences: (3) scholarly essays on beginning to teach: (4) reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences: and (5) empirical studies of beginning to teach. A bibliography is appended containing references to published works on this topic as well as journal articles and ERIC citations. (JD)

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A KNOWLEDGE BASE FOR TEACHER INDUCTION

By

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A Knowledge Base for Teacher Induction

John M. Johnston

For beginning teachers, induction into the profession is a series of encounters with their unique position as newcomers. Beginning teachers are faced with a variety of new experiences and unfamiliar enviornments. They are challenged with demonstrating their ability as competent professionals. While they are struggling with their professional assessment of what each situation requires, and assessing their ability to handle matters, beginning teachers must also contend with how they are perceived by their students, fellow teachers and superiors. How do others think I am doing? What do others expect of me? Should I ask questions? Should I keep my ideas to myself?

The personal lives of beginning teachers are also crowded with significant changes and potentially troubling adjustments. The secure familiarity of college life gives way to new roles, expectations, and professional and social settings. First teaching positions may signal financial independence with its attendant responsibilities. Marriage often occurs near graduation and the start of a new career. For many couples, role reorientation accompanies changes as one's partner leaves school to enter the world of work.

The dynamics of becoming a teacher and being a teacher merge with intensity during the first year of teaching. The process of induction, or bringing one into the teaching profession produces varying degrees of tension, doubt, anxiety, conflict and stress. Such stress may adversely affect the physical and mental well-being of beginning teachers. Stress may interfere with a beginner's effectiveness with students and colleagues.

In severe cases, stress may impair beginning teachers' confidence or competence to the point that they leave the teaching profession.

Most engaged in the educational enterprise acknowledge the uniqueness and significance of this period in the professional and personal lives of teachers. Inspite of such broad recognition, little is being done to support beginning teachers during their professional induction.

The purposes of this paper are several: first, to review certain salient forces affecting the lives of beginning teachers; second, to establish a perspective on beginning to teach, from which to consider knowledge about teacher induction; and third, to describe and discuss the nature and quality of professional knowledge derived from evaluated induction treatments.

Professional Lives of Beginning Teachers

It is likely that at no other time in their teaching careers will teachers be so unsure of their own competence than during the first year of teaching. Beginning teachers are faced with two major challenges to their professional self-confidence. First, in many instances they must determine what they must actually do in the classroom. What courses of action should be taken? What strategies should be used to meet the varying demands of the teaching process? Second, beginning teachers are faced with gnawing doubts: Can I do the job. Can I teach? Will students listen to me? Will they do the things I ask?

An effort is made during the teacher training process to provide prospective teachers with the necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes to meet both of these challenges. It is generally recognized, however, that

teacher preparation programs, most lasting only one or two years, can provide only an entry level of competence. Teacher preparation is, of necessity, provided at a general level. Extended first-hand opportunities to actually teach in a field setting are primarily limited to student teaching. Such settings will likely be quite different from that of the teacher's first position. It is not surprising that beginning teachers have doubts about their knowledge of what should be done in specific situations and their ability to manage these situations.

As new teachers are unsure of what action should be taken and are doubtful of their ability to accomplish such action; others in the new teacher's work environment are unsure of the beginner's competence. For students, teachers, principals, supervisors and parents, first year teachers are a new and unknown entity. Beginning teachers are strangers to the school communities they enter. They bring no credible background of professional experience. They bring no other reputation besides beginner. At no time in teachers' professional careers are others so unsure of teachers competence than during their first year of teaching.

First year teachers are, for the most part, aliens in a new, yet deceptively familiar world. With few exceptions, new teachers are not familiar with the school setting for their first year of teaching. They must learn the geography of their new community setting: the location of supplies, the music teacher's room, the P.E. director's office, hallways, stairwells, and doors. Beginning teachers are not familiar with the rules and regulations which govern the internal operation of the school community and the larger system in which they are teaching. Matters such as field trip permissions, accident reports, professional leave, and assigned duties may not

be consolidated or available to even experienced teachers. Even more difficult are the informal routines and customs of the school. Unless told, it might take the beginning teacher a while to realize that fire drills are always Friday afternoon; or that the Culture Committee meeting notice posted on the faculty bulletin board really means to meet at a nearby tavern for drinks. Such situations may prove troublesome for the beginning teacher who is not likely to be aware of the unwritten lore of the community.

Perhaps most importantly, first year teachers do not know the other people in their work setting. Beginning teachers are not familiar with the names, faces and personalities of those with whom they work. First year teachers are outsiders entering an on-going professional and social community. New teachers bring a fragile and embryonic sense of belonging to the teaching profession. They have a limited sense of belonging to the specific school community in which they are to teach. As inexperienced outsiders, beginning teachers are not likely to possess an understanding of the attitudes, opinions, expectations, values, and roles of the specific professional work community they are entering. Beginning teachers have little first hand knowledge of how those within the school perceive that specific professional community. They lack first hand knowledge of how those in the professional community perceive beginning teachers and the induction process.

Personal Lives of Beginning Teachers

At the same time first year teachers are facing an unfamiliar work setting, their personal lives are undergoing re-orientation and change. For many, to this point life has been concerned with school, friends, and

family. For most first year teachers, school has been their primary endeavor in life. By the time they have graudate they have completed approximately 15,000 hours of school. Upon college graduation, the primary goal becomes finding a teaching position and demonstrating competence in it.

Over the short space of a summer or less, beginning teachers' lives are changed dramatically. They are now thrust into the multiple roles of teacher, roles which may seem deceptively familiar to those, who as students. have watched the equivalent of 7,500 full-length feature movies of teaching. The task shifts from becoming a teacher to being a teacher, to being perceived as a competent member of the teaching profession.

Not only have immediate life goals shifted and new roles been encountered, but also first year teachers may face other changes in their life as well. With their beginning teaching position, and first paycheck, may come the first real financial independence in their lives. They must adjust their life-styles to a new budget and attend to other responsibilities of their new status.

Accepting the first teaching position may mean leaving the city where they attended college. Such a move may signal the loss of close contact with a familiar social network established during the college years. Their new job may take them further from family, underscoring the independence and increase responsibility for their own lives.

First year teachers are often thrust into a new locale. Suitable housing must be obtained and made livable. The beginning teachers must learn where to shop for their various needs, where to purchase car insurance, where to find doctors and dentists, how to go about getting a new drivers license, and a host of other matters in already crowded lives.

Many new teachers are adjusting to marriage or new family work roles.

Changes, new experiences, and unfamiliar situations in the professional and personal lives of beginning teachers have been reviewed. Such changes and new encounters are likely to produce varying degrees of tension, anxiety, stress, and for some, exhilaration. More specifically, in their professional lives, beginning teachers are beset with doubts about their own abilities, and are concerned about how others perceive them. The potential for stress is increased by the similarity between the environment experienced from the student perspective, and the environmental view required for the teacher's perspective. Efforts to introduce or induct new teachers into the profession are generally designed to reduce such stress, and provide new teachers with the knowledge, skills, and support necessary to meet their immediate needs and provide for future professional development.

Knowledge About Beginning to Teach

Professional knowledge about beginning to teach, beginning teachers, and the induction of teachers will be considered in terms of categories proposed by Applegate et al. (1977): (a) advice about beginning to teach, (b) reports of beginning teachers' own experiences, (c) scholarly essays on beginning to teach, (d) reflective interpretations of beginning teachers' experiences, and (e) empirical studies of beginning to teach.

Advice About Beginning to Teach

This group of papers represents the most frequently occuring type of literature about the first year of teaching (Johnston, 1978). Advice articles are most frequently written by those who write from the perspective

of an experienced teacher, principal, or most frequently, school of education faculty member and are of two types: advice to beginning teachers, and advice about beginning teachers.

Articles bearing titles such as "If I Were a Beginning Teacher" (Jones, 1934), or "I'd like to Tell that Beginning Teacher" (Brown, 1942) are representative of the first type. Such advice to beginning teachers is usually focused on matters of planning (McLaren, 1972; Shadick and Lilley, 1972), and discipline and classroom control (Bell, 1971; Cambier, 1965; Elrod, 1976; Peterson, 1960). Advice offered to beginning teachers may be vague admonitions to "Be yourself" or such advice may be extremely sepcific.

Although advice to beginning teachers comprises the largest portion of this category, advice about beginning teachers is also common. These articles are usually written by college faculty or school administrative personnel and are directed to other principals and supervisors (Abraham, 1954; Brown, 1977; Koontz, 1967; Lee, 1940; Smith, 1931). These papers suggest ways in which supervisory personnel can assist beginning teachers, and problems for which principals should be prepared. Most professional literature about the induction of beginning teachers falls into this advice category. Most of this induction literature is based only on personal experience.

Reports of Beginning Teachers' Experiences

First person reports by beginning teachers comprise this category (Ellis, 1939; Grinnell, 1940; Hall, 1970; Leiberman, 1975). These are usually straightforward accounts of unexpected experiences, problems encountered and satisfactions, often ending with a stirring reaffirmation of commitment to a life-long reaching career. Reports in this category are char-

acterized by their lack of interpretation or commentary. References to their induction experience can provide a useful perspective for understanding the beginners views of their induction.

Scholarly Essays on Beginning to Teach

Carefully reasoned explanations of experiences of beginning teachers, and thoughtful commentaries on beginning to teach comprise the third category. These papers, written by teacher educators, address topics and issues such an anxiety (Jersild, 1966), early career experiences (Bush, 1965) internships (Bents & Howey, 1979), socialization (Jackson, 1974), and survival (Ryan, 1974). Rehage (1968) has examined induction, as has Howey and Bents (1979). The focus of these essays is not first hand reports of beginning teachers, but rather analysis of significant aspects of the beginning teaching experience.

Scholarly Interpretation of Beginning Teachers' Experiences

Sources in this group represent accounts of first year teachers combined with scholarly, discipline-based interpretations. Ryan (1970) includes accounts of inner city and suburban first year teachers followed by an interpretive essay. Fuchs (1969) and Eddy (1969) bring an anthropological perspective to narratives of self-reports of first year teachers. Ryan et al. (1980) offer accounts of first year teachers' lives from objectives and subjective perspectives. Such reports provide indicators of the range of experiences in first year teachers' lives and their responses to these experiences. These interpretation provide for additional understanding of the needs and perceptions of beginning teacher induction.

Research on Beginning to Teach

A comprehensive review of research on beginning to teach is beyond the

scope of the present analysis and would duplicate existing sources (Johnston & Ryan, 1981; Ryan et al., 1980). Though there are few evaluations of induction practices, findings from each of the following clusters of related research on beginnning to teach can inform induction practices: (a) the problems of beginning teachers, (b) the psychosocial aspects of beginning to teach, (c) evaluation and followup studies of teacher education programs (d) classroom management and the mechanics of beginning school, and (e) qualitative descriptions of beginning to teach.

Knowledge About Induction Practices

The present analysis includes only reports published in professional books, journals and microfiche, during the past fifty years. Excluded are program evaluations which are not published in books, journals or microfiche. This analysis is limited to the study of teacher induction in this country, though acknowledging that considerable attention is being given to teacher induction in England and Austrailia (Bolam, 1973, 1976; Tisher, 1979). The scope of the present analysis does not include evaluation of internship or fifth year programs, in light of the Educational Testing Service study of such programs. Finally, this analysis includes only instances in which some type of evaluation or assessment was done, and for which findings were reported. Mere description of practices was not included in the present analysis.

Throughout this paper, induction programs, strategies, and practices refer to deliberate actions designed to provide entry-level support for beginning teachers. Induction are designed to increase the likelihood

that beginning teachers will be successful and effective in their initial teaching experiences and will persevere in the profession. Reduction of teaching loads and assignment of a "buddy" teacher are but two common induction practices. Generally induction practices are extended only to teachers during their first or second years (Johnston & Ryan, 1981).

The present analysis will describe and discuss (a) strategies for teacher induction, (b) the evaluation procedures and effects of induction efforts, and (c) funding and staffing induction efforts. A brief discussion will conclude the paper.

Description of Induction Practices

Professional knowledge about the induction of teachers is based in part, on surveys of practices. Tate (1942) reported a survey in which teachers rated the effectiveness of induction practices. The most highly rated practices were (a) individual conferences with the area supervisor prior to the beginning to school in the fall, (b) general teachers meetings before school begins in the fall, (c) consulting with experienced teachers, and (d) conferences with supervisors after visits early in the school year.

Ingebritson's (1950) survey of the induction practices of 261 school systems found that 68% of the school systems reported having formal induction programs. Conferences with individual teachers was considered to be the most effective induction format, followed by workshops, and group meetings by grades. Topics of discussion at these meetings were most frecuently philosophy of the school system, rules and regulations, and parent conferences. Ingebritson reported major objectives of induction

programs in terms of (a) those relative to informing the beginning teachers about the school system (b) those relative to assisting the beginning teacher to establish effective classroom environments, and (c) those relative to assimilating beginning teachers into the staff. In the first category, programs most frequently focused on school policies and procedures, philosophy of the school system, and general information about the school system. In the second category, objectives dealts with familiarization with materials and equipment and help with specific problems. In the third category, the objectives most frequently dealt with belongingness, building morale, and assimilation into the school faculty.

A second portion of professional knowledge about the induction of teachers is based on the results of evaluations of specific induction practices. Four clusters of induction strategies can be defined: (a) group meetings, (b) the helping teacher, (c) reduced teaching responsibility, and (d) other practices and variations.

Group meetings. Small group, and to a lesser extent large group meetings appear to be common vehicles for induction practices. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) three-year, experimental demonstration project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers (Hunt, 1968; Swanson, 1968) made extensive use of group meetings provided non-threatening emotional support. The flexibility of the small group meeting format allowed for ease of organization and delivery of specific assistance to group members. Both Hunt and Swanson reported value in small group formats which included beginning teachers and at least one experienced cooperating teacher.

Oates (1971) reported the evaluation of a program designed to encompass personal growth, openness and integration of effective and cognitive growth in beginning teachers. Training sessions consisted of two weeks of intensive encounter work for small groups, and a three-day session on curriculum and methodology for the large group. During the school year each of the groups met one night a mongh and the entire group met one day a month. Evaluation of program effectiveness was based on questionnaires given to all participants and on feedback from the monthly workshops. The beginning teachers' feedback was positive with regard to the encounter group sessions and positive but non-specific with regard to the monthly meetings.

Dooley (1970) reported a project which employed small group sessions for training and discussion. These groups met monthly throughout the year. Questionnaire responses by beginning teachers indicated that small group sessions were most helpful in (a) exchanging ideas with other teachers, (b) providing an opportunity for beginning teachers to listen to open, supportive, experienced teachers, (c) coming to understand the actions of pupils and other teachers, and (d) developing the feeling that other teachers wanted to help.

Blackburn and Crandall (1975) and Blackburn, (1977) reported employing group meetings among beginning teachers, local education agency personnel, state department of education personnel, and school of education personnel. Each organization is responsible for providing beginning teachers with assistance specific to each sphere of responsibility. Findings for the group meeting format were not reported.

Group meetings appear to have value for providing emotional support for beginning teachers, for solving specific problems shared by beginning teachers, and as a format for the delivery of specific training. A feature common to all of the programs reviewed above is that there is always at least one member of the group who is not a beginning teacher. This group leader may be a faculty member (Dooley, 1970; Blackburn, 1977), a consultant (Oates, 1971), an experienced helping teacher (Swanson, 1968), or a representative of state or local departments of education (Blackburn, 1977).

Helping teacher. The concept of assigning an experienced teacher, a buddy, a cooperating or master teacher is common in literature about the induction of beginning teachers. The design of the NASSP project (Hunt, 1968; Swanson, 1968) incorporates a "cooperating teacher" as one element common to all of the project variations. Swanson reports that the teaching load would be reduced by one class period for an experienced teacher who would advise and counsel the beginning teachers in the project. Though he does not report the specific evaluation procedures, Hunt reports that the use of a cooperating teacher is effective in helping the beginning teacher to adjust to the new setting. Moreover, Hunt warns that the selection of the "right" cooperating teacher is important and that the cooperating teacher must be free of any evaluative responsibilities.

Noda (1968) reported a beginning teacher development program which employed a supervisor who was an experienced teacher with specialized skills and abilities in supervision. The supervisor was charged with the development of the beginning teachers abilities. Unlike the helping teach-

ers in Swanson's and McGinnis's programs, Noda reported that the supervisor provided the principal with information to be used for retention or dismissal and for salary increments. Also unlike these two programs, Noda implies the supervisor was not given a reduction in teaching load or release time for conferences. Though specific detailed evaluation procedures and results were not reported, initial assesment by all participating personnel rated the program "good" in achieving it's goal of assisting the beginning teacher with his/her overall growth.

Reduced teaching responsibility. A cornerstone of the NASSP Project was a teaching load reduced by one class period for the beginning teacher during the first year of employment. Similarly, the helping teacher also received a reduction of teaching load by one class period. At one point in the NASSP project, an effort was made to determine if induction could be accomplished as successfully without release time for the beginning and helping teachers. While the evaluation procedures were not reported, Swanson (1968) reported little success when induction activities were scheduled before or after school. However, weekly group meetings of beginning and helping teachers were productive when held during a common planning time.

Hite, et al. (1966) and Hite (1968) reported an experimental study of the effects of reduced load and intensive inservice treatment upon the classroom behavior of beginning teachers. The purpose of these studies was to determine if differential treatment of beginning teachers resulted in significant changes in either the classroom behavior of these teachers or their attitudes toward the profession of teaching. Using student teaching

grades and level of teaching assignemnt as matching variables, 120 female middle/upper middle SES elementary school teachers were assigned to one of four groups . Group I teachers were released from approximately 25% of classroom teaching time. This time was used for class preparation and for conferences with supervisors who could observe them during the week. Each teacher in this group was observed twice a week for 1 1/2 hours and then confered with the supervisor following each observation. Group II teacher also received 25% release time to be used for class preparation and for visits two times a week with an experienced teacher teaching at the same level or subject. These experienced teachers had been selected by the principal as effective teachers. Group III teachers were given a 25% reduction in the number of students assigned to their classes. They received no other treatment. Group IV served as a control group. A modified form of the Stanford Teacher Competence Appraisal Guide was used for observations each week during the first four weeks of school. Subsequent observations were made every 4 1/2 weeks until January. Each beginning teacher was asked to complete a semantic differential attitude scale to measure attitudes toward teaching. No significant differences were found among any groups on either measure. In a followup study (Hite, 1968) no significant differences were found among any group on either measure and the differences between groups were smaller after one year of teaching experience.

Other induction practices. An assortment of single instances of induction practices, or variations on the clusters just described comprise the final cluster. Sensitivity or encounter group training is a special class of induction using the group format. In a study of participants in a multi-

cultural teacher training institute Provost (1971) reported that "sensitivity training" resulted in increased senitivity to others. As is typical of induction evaluation literature, specific evaluation methods and results were not reported. Likewise, the actual treatment specifics were not described.

In Oates' (1971) evaluation of a project for the affective education of teachers, intensive encounter group sesions for beginning teachers were reported, but not described. Program participants were compared with two other groups of beginning teachers: a control group graduated from traditional teacher education programs, and a control group graduated from liberal arts programs. These groups were compared at the end of their first year of teaching in three ways: (a) total and factor scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, (b) Beginning Teacher Questionnaire, (c) Classroom Observation Schedule, which included the Joyce Category System. The program was effective to a significant degree in developing teachers who at the end of the first year of teaching were more open and understanding of children than those who were traditionally trained. Participant feedback was positive with regard to the encounter group sessions.

Gerbner (1950) reported a program which combined elements of released time and group sessions. The induction program was a pre-school planning week with pay. The program contained three parts: (a) a general session and workshop on a system-wide basis, (b) individual and group planning at the building where the new teacher was assigned, and (c) community activities. Workshop groups were lead by experienced teachers or administrators. In response to a questionnaire, beginning teachers expressed feelings of increased security and belongingness, and reported that new rela-

tionships were established as they met and worked with co-workers.

Finally, Morsink et al. (1979) reproted an interesting program to support beginning learning disabilities teachers. Fifty-seven beginning teachers were given tape cassettes and told to record descriptions of problems they encountered. The tapes were sent to university faculty who recorded detailed solutions and suggestions for practice. Participants who responded by questionnaire indicated the program "was helpful."

In summary, there have been only a handful of beginning teacher induction programs or practices that have been evaluated. Both the range and frequency of evaluated practices is extremely limited. Published descriptions of programs are vague and incomplete. Detailed or specific knowledge of induction treatments and settings is largely lacking in published porfessional literature, an important repository of knowledge about beginning to teach. In total, the range of evaluated induction strategies can be summarized in this fashion: give specially selected and trained experienced teachers the time and freedom to meet in small groups with beginning teachers, for the purpose of emotional and technical support and problem solving, with released time for beginning teachers to plan and observe. There is also evidence that beginning teachers can be made more sensitive and understanding by giving them sensitivity training.

Induction Practices: Evaluation and Effects

The range of methods used to evaluate induction efforts is as narrow as that of practices tried. Similarly, the descriptions of evaluation procedures are vague, incomplete, or not reported altogether. Bear in mind

that the primary focus of the present analysis is teacher induction practices which have been evaluated, even if only loosely or subjectively evaluated. The professional literature contains many descriptions of induction programs and practices for which no evaluation or assessment information is given (e.g., Marks, 1962; Montgomery Public Schools, 1972; Taylor, 1965).

The most common evaluation procedure reported was questionnaires and ratings of program effectiveness (e.g., Blackburn, 1977; Gerbner, 1950; Hite et al., 1966; Morsink et al., 1979; Oates, 1971; Swanson, 1968). Structured observations were used by Oates (1971) and Hite et al. (1966). Blackburn (1977) reported using interview to gather evaluation data. Oates (1971) and Dooley (1970) used psychological tests such as the MTAI. Ingebritson's (1950) report, that the most frequently employed methods of evaluating the effectiveness of induction efforts were (a) conferences between administrator and supervisor, (b) conferences between principal and teacher, and (c) conferences between administrator and teacher, adds little to our knowledge. Control group designs were rarely employed, two exceptions being Hite et al. (1966) and Oates (1971). Evaluation procedures were often poorly conceptualized and of questionable validity.

The findings yielded by these evaluation procedures are limited and disappointing. Ingebritson (1950) reported the following outcomes of induction programs pertaining to teacher welfare: (a) more effective start in work, (b) acquaintance with staff personnel, and (c) higher morale. The most frequently reported program outcomes pertaining to information about the school system and community were knowledge of (a) programs and practices, (b) philosophy of the school system, and (c)

local problems of the community. The most frequently reported program outcomes pertaining to classroom situations were (a) knowledge of materials of instruction, (b) better classroom teaching, and (c) program coordination.

Practices of supportive visits by supervisors (Noda, 1968), an extra paid week of planning, orientation sessions prior to the beginning of school (Berbner, 1950), and assistance with specific problems (Moresink et al., 1979) were rated "helpful, good, or valuable," Swanson (1968) reported that the Detriot evaluation of NASSP project found that participants found the following helpful: (a) aid in planning, (b) aid in discipline matters, (c) help in classroom control, (d) knowledge of school policies, and (e) insights into better utilization of instructional materials. NASSP Project participants generally rated release time highly, contradicting Hite's earlier findings.

Swanson (1968) reported that beginning teachers questioned felt that time for planning, problem solving, and materials development was of paramount importance. NASSP Project findings, and those of McGinnis (1968), also support the use of the helping teacher. Oates (1971) and Provost (1971) found that sensitivity and encounter group training would promote higher levels of sensivitity, openness, and understanding, when composed to beginning teachers without such training.

One feature which stands out in these collective findings is the strong positive regard in which beginning teachers held the induction efforts. It may be the case that beginning teachers receive so little attention, or that their needs are so great, that any effort to ease the

entry into the profession is perceived in a positive light.

Funding and Personnel

Beginning teacher induction programs are not inexpensive, even modest ones. This analysis found that funding was supplied through federal or foundation funds (Dooley, 1970; Hite et al., 1966, Hunt, 1968; Oates, 1971; Swanson, 1968). Programs were also funded by state departments of education (McGinnis, 1968), jointly by teacher training institutions and SDEs (Noda, 1968), or by teacher training institutions, SDE's and the local education agency (Blackburn & Crandal, 1975; Blackburn, 1977).

The need for cooperative ventures in the induction of beginning teachers has been discussed by Howey and Bents, (1979) and Johnston and Ryan, 1981. Such cooperative programs are now being promulgated and mandated by Florida, Arizona and Oklahoma (Bents & Howey, 1979; "Education Reforms Proposed in Oklahoma", 1980). Blackburn (1977) has demonstrated that the local school system, the state department of education, and teacher training institution can work cooperatively and effectively in beginning teacher induction efforts. Blackburn reported that local education agency personnel provided beginning teachers with matters of specific local interest to school districts, i.e. recordkeeping procedures, management procedures, local policies and the like. The LEA was also responsible for immediate field support and problem solving. State department of education personnel trained beginning teachers in state law pertaining to teachers and professional ethics. The SDE also acted in a general planning and coordination capacity in line with its state-wide network. Teacher education faculty were responsible for inservice attention to identified problems of beginning teachers.

Blackburn reported use of a teacher center for team meetings and individual sessions. Such efforts at shared responsibility for teacher induction bear further attention and involvement from all groups.

Discussion

The knowledge of beginning teacher induction based on evaluated practices is derived from a tiny pool of published reports. Only a few types of induction strategies have been evaluated. Evaluation or assessment procedures are of questionable validity and are poorly reported.

In spite of these short comings, there is tentative support for certain induction practices. First, it appears to be helpful if beginning teachers can work with specially selected and trained experienced teachers. It appears to be beneficial for beginning teachers to work in small groups with the helping teacher, who is most effective in a non-evaluative role. These small group teams seem to be effective sources of emotional support for beginning teacher, and are an effective vehicle for technical support and problem solving. Second, it appears to be beneficial if both beginning teachers and helping teachers are given release time from their normal teaching responsibilities. Beginning teachers find such release time invaluable for planning, meetings with other teachers and the helping teacher, and material development. Finally, it appears to be beneficial to program effectiveness if teacher training institutions, state and local education agencies are cooperatively involved in the induction effort.

Where does the profession go from here with its efforts to induct new teachers? One unavoidable answer is that the profession must collectively

own up to the fact that as weak and limited as the knowledge base may seem, the current level of induction practices is even weaker and more limited. In short, though we don't appear to know much for sure, we know more than we are presently doing.

Possible reasons for this state of affairs are legion. Cost is certainly factor, though claiming lack of funds for induction programs begs the question. A more likely explanation is a pervasive lack of professional recognition of the importance of beginning teacher induction. At all porfessional levels there is little commitment to serious efforts to improve the process of teacher induction. Lip service to the significance of supportive induction practice abounds, financial support is lacking.

Commitment of all professional educators to the need for improved induction programs is merely the first step. The profession must take on the task of educating the general public and their local, state and national Legislators about the importance of strong induction programs. Unless strong traditional attitudes are changed, unless the sink or swim mentality and the trial by combat perspective on professional induction is replaced with other models, little change will occur.

A second response to the need for more effective induction programs is to organize the larger body of related research knowledge which might inform induction efforts. A few such examples follow. Marsh, et al. (1974) in a detailed evaluation of all sixth cycle Teacher Corps projects, reported findings which provide support for collaborative decision-making patterns in program operation, for community involvement, and for technical support of beginners in the schools. Earp and Tanner (1975) have reported findings

which suggest the value of team support for beginning teachers. Ryan et al. (1980) have reported support for a non-evaluative sympathetic listener as positive support for beginning teachers. Analysis by Applegate et al. (1977) has developed support/non-support continue describing the roles of others in the lives of beginning teachers. Johnston (1979b) has identified two distinct types of personal concerns of beginning teachers. Research by Applegate et al. (1977); Gaede (1978); Johnston (1979a); and Ligana (1970) has suggested the importance of particular periods and experiences in the lives of beginning teachers. Cross-disciplinary research provides several perspectives from which to interpret the socialization of beginning teachers (Edgar & Warren, 1969; Haller, 1967; Hoy, 1967, 1968, 1969; Wrignt & Tuska, 1966, 1967, 1968).

Research on induction in other professions may inform teacher induction efforts. Research on beginning nurses (Kramer, McConnel & Reed, 1972; Kramer, 1974; Tenbrink, 1968) suggest findings similar to research on beginning teachers (cf. Fox, 1977; Kramer, 1974). Such related knowledge should be organized and used in the design of new induction programs, and in the evaluation and interpretation of program effects.

Finally, the limited amount of research on the induction of teachers leaves a wide open field for new research and evaluation efforts. The need for careful descriptions and analysis of effects of induction treatments is omnipresent. A much earier plan which would have positive effects on knowledge of teacher induction would be to plan new programs with evaluation procedures in mind. If evaluations of existing procedures were carefully described and reported in published sources, efforts toward the improvement of teacher induction would be strengthened.

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